Chapter 2

Review of literature

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature of the study. It gives the brief description of the use of films in language teaching, a different genre of films, audiovisual aids in language teaching and the role of audio-visual aids in motivating the learners. It mentions the definitions of vocabulary, the role of vocabulary in language learning, kinds of vocabulary, techniques, and strategies of teaching vocabulary. The study also discusses theories of visual aids in language learning. It also gives the theoretical and pedagogical views of films in speaking.

2.1 Theories of Second Language Learning

Second language acquisition or L2 acquisition is the process by which people learn a second language. It refers to any language learned by the people in addition to first language. Second language acquisition is divided into five stages: preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency and advanced fluency. Many psychologists started advocating their own opinions about learning and they used many theories. Many numbers of studies have been conducted by many theorists on second language acquisition. Every theory gave detailed information about human behavior and explained the relationship between different factors. Theory provides a way of finding new and powerful generalizations. Theories function in various different ways. The first function is understanding, second one is transformation and the third is prediction. A theory is both a summary of known facts and laws and the relationships between them. Theories help us understand and organize the data of experience. Good theories stimulate research. Theories generate new hypothetical laws to
be put to empirical test. The main goal of second language acquisition theory is description. It is also concerned with explanation along with description. The strength of the theory rests on the ability to cover what we know already and in predicting the future. There are five theories in second language learning. They are

1) The Monitor Model
2) Interlanguage theory
3) Linguistic Universals
4) Acculturation/Pidginization theory
5) Cognitive theory

1. The Monitor model

The most important theory of second language learning process is the Stephen Krashen’s Monitor Model. This theory evolved in the late 1970s. The theory has a number of metaphors, one of which is the Monitor or mental editor, which utilizes conscious grammatical knowledge to determine the form of produced utterances. This theory is based on the five basic hypotheses:

a) The Acquisition-learning Hypothesis
b) The Monitor Hypothesis
c) The Natural Order Hypothesis
d) The Input Hypothesis
e) The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

According to Krashen, second language learners have two distinct and independent ways of developing the competence in second language one is acquisition and the other is learning.
Acquisition is ‘a subconscious process which children utilize in acquiring their first language whereas Learning is ‘a conscious process that results in knowing about a language.

Acquisition comes through meaningful interaction in a natural communication setting. Krashen views that what is consciously learned through the presentation of rules and explanations of grammar does not become the basis of acquiring the target language. This argument is based on three claims.

i) Sometimes there is acquisition without learning. This means that the individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know many rules consciously.

ii) There are cases where learning never becomes acquisition- that is a person can know the rule and continue breaking it and

iii) No one knows any rules of language learning.

Krashen said that acquisition is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring the first language. He argued that adult acquirers have access to the same ‘Language Acquisition Device’ which children use. Chomsky invented the LAD notion which saw the mind as modular with the LAD as one of various ‘mental organs’ which interact with each other and with the input to produce linguistic competence.

According to Chomsky, the LAD is a construct which describes the Childs initial state, before the child receives the linguistic input from the environment. He believed that first language acquisition takes place through the essential language faculty which decreases at a certain age, but still it is possible to learn a language after that age by using other mental faculties as the logical or mathematical faculties. This means that the ability to use LAD
declines with age and that adult second language learners rely on other ‘mental organs’ but he also stated that the adults and children have access to the same LAD in second-language performance. He said that ‘people learn language from pedagogical grammars by the use of their conscious universal grammars.

Language acquisition is seen as a progression of setting the values of the parameters of the universal principles, and not as a problem of acquiring the grammatical rules.

The Monitor Hypothesis

According to Krashen, “Learning and Acquisition are used in very detailed ways in second language performance”. The monitor hypothesis mentions that, “‘Learning has only one function, which acts as a monitor or editor and learning, comes into play to ‘make changes in the form of utterance, after it has been produced by the acquired system’”. Acquisition initiates the speakers utterances and responsible for fluency. Monitor alters the production of the acquired system before or after the utterance is actually written or spoken, but the utterance is initiated entirely by the acquired system. This hypothesis has important implications for language teaching. Krashen viewed that conscious knowledge of rules does not help acquisition, but makes the learner to ‘polish up’ what has been acquired through communication. The focus of language teaching is not rule-learning but communication. The important implication of Krashen’s argument is that learning is available for use in production, not in comprehension. He specified three conditions for the use of the monitor

Time: In order to use the conscious rules effectively, a second language performer should have enough time.
Focus on form: to use the monitor effectively, not only time is enough but the performer should focus on form or about correctness. We should be concerned with what we are saying instead of how we are saying.

Know the rule: the learner should know the rules of a language.

Krashen based his explanation of individual differences in second-language performance on the monitor concept. He distinguished three types of monitor users.

a) Monitor under-users: these are the people who monitors all the time, constantly checking the output with their conscious knowledge of the second language.

b) Monitor over-users: these are the people who have not learned or if they have learned also they prefer not to use their conscious knowledge, even when conditions allow it. They are uninfluenced by error correction, and can self-correct themselves by using a ‘feel’ for correctness and rely completely on acquired system.

c) The optimal monitor use: these people use the monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication.

The Monitor also plays important role in adult-child differences in language learning. Krashen argued that the adolescents and adults are faster language learners in the initial stages but young children do better. Krashen’s argument assumes that the use of the monitor interferes with the performance. Hence the children, who have not developed the monitor, have an advantage in language learning. Many learners argue that knowing and applying the rules helps them perform better, though they may be slowed down. Hence using the monitor actually leads to better performance and that is the reason why adolescents do well. Learners believe that what they consciously learned becomes the basis for unconscious and automatic performance. Learning through monitor acts only as an editor on utterances which are initiated through acquisition.
The Natural Order Hypothesis:

The natural order hypothesis mentions that we acquire the rules of the language in a predictable order, one comes early and the others later. The ‘natural’ order of the acquisition is the result of the acquired system, operating free of conscious grammar or the monitor. The natural order hypothesis comes from the ‘morpheme’ studies. In 1974 Dulay & Burt studied the order of the acquisition of grammatical morphemes or ‘functors’ in English by the five to eight year children learning a second language. Their work was based on a finding reported by Roger Brown from research with children learning English as a first language. According to Brown, there is a common invariant sequence of acquiring 14 functors, or function words in English which have a minor role in conveying the sentence meaning. They were interested in whether who acquire English as a second language learn these functors in the same sequence. For this research, they used an instrument called the Bilingual Syntax measure which contained cartoon pictures and a series of questions. These questions are designed to elicit spontaneous speech which contained most of the morphemes described by Brown. With the help of this, Dulay & Burt looked at the accuracy order of eleven morphemes in children speech, by determining the % of times a subject correctly supplied a morpheme in an obligatory context.

Dulay & Burt exposed the children to different amounts of second language and measured ‘acquisition sequence’ by the degree to which the functors were correctly supplied in the speech samples.

This hypothesis states that different learning strategies produce different acquisition patterns in individuals acquiring the same target language.
The Input Hypothesis:

The input hypothesis states that humans acquire language only in one way i.e. by accepting messages or by receiving ‘comprehensible input’. We move from i, our current level to i+1, the next level along the natural order by understanding input containing i+1. This hypothesis attempts to answer the question of how we acquire language. The input hypothesis has two ideas:

i) Speaking is a consequence of acquisition not its cause.

ii) If input is understood, then the necessary grammar is automatically provided.

The silent period is one of the phenomenon which is an evidence in support of the input hypothesis. During this period, the learners build up their competence in the language by listening.

Krashen argued that input hypothesis was based on age differences. He opined that older learners acquire quickly in the early stages because they obtain more comprehensible because their knowledge of the world makes the input more meaningful than it is for a child. He also believed that older learners are able to participate in conversation earlier than younger learner because they can utilize the strategy of falling back on first language syntactic rules, supplemented with second language vocabulary and repaired by the monitor.

Krashen also used the term ‘intake’ which is the subset of linguistic input that helps the learner or acquirer to learn a language.

According to him, the input is comprehensible when it is meaningful and understood by the learner. The input hypothesis is based on three principal arguments like simple codes, research on the effect of instruction on second language acquisition and methods of comparison research.
The simple codes provide ideal input for learners because they are easily comprehensible and not finely tuned to the learners' needs. Krashen assume that the formal instruction in a second language is a source of comprehensible input. According to him, the main function of the second language class is to provide learners with good and grammatical comprehensible input which is unavailable to them outside, and they can obtain comprehensible input on their own in the ‘real world’. He argued that the best way to learn a second language is to approach the language as children do when they acquire the first language. The learner should understand the messages rather than focusing on form or memorizing vocabulary. The input hypothesis makes a strong claim that acquisition is caused by understanding the input to which the learner is exposed.

**The Affective Filter Hypothesis**

Krashen believed that the comprehensible input is not a sufficient condition for successful acquisition but affective factors also play an important role in acquiring the second language. According to Affective Filter Hypothesis, comprehensible input may not be utilized by the second language learners if there is a ‘mental block’ which prevents them from fully profiting from it. The affective filter acts as a obstruction to acquisition. If the filter is ‘low’, the input reaches the LAD and becomes acquired competence and if the filter is ‘up’, the input is blocked-up and does not reach the LAD. Thus input is the primary causative variable in second language acquisition and affective variables facilitate the delivery of input to the LAD.

When the affective filter is high, the learner can understand what is seen and read, but the input will not reach the LAD. This occurs when the acquirer is unmotivated, lack confidence or concerned with failure.
The affective filter hypothesis capture the connection between affective variables and the method of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their affective filter. The affective filter was proposed by Dulay & Burt to account for how affective variables affect the process of second language learning. The children have lower affective filter whereas adult learners have higher affective filter. According to affective filter hypothesis adolescence is the worst period for language learning but early adolescents is the best time to learn a second language.

2. Interlanguage theory

The term ‘Interlanguage’ was coined by Selinker to refer to the interim grammars constructed by second-language learners on their means to the target language. The term ‘interlanguage’ means the learners system at a single point in time and the range of interlocking system which characterizes the development of learners over time.

According to Selinker, interlanguage is a separate linguistic system resulting from the learners attempt to produce the target language norm, was the product of five central processes involved in second language learning.

i) Language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second-language communication and overgeneralization of the target linguistic material.

The development of interlanguage is different from the process of first language development because of fossilization in the second language. Fossilization is the language state of affairs which exists when the learner ceases to elaborate the interlanguage. Fossilization results from language transfer and it is also the result from many other processes.
Interlanguage referred to an interim grammar which is a single system composed of rules that are developed via different cognitive strategies like transfer, overgeneralization, simplification and the correct understanding of the target language. According to Adjemian, the systematicity of the interlanguage should be analyzed linguistically as rule governed behavior. Internal organization of the language can be idealized linguistically like any natural language. The individuals’ first-language system is stable, but their interlanguage is not. The structures of the interlanguage are invaded by the first language and the second language learner may use rules or items from the first language. Then the learner may generalize a rule from the target language to produce the intended meaning.

According to Tarone, the interlanguage is seen as analyzable into a set of styles that are dependent on the context of use. She assumed the interlanguage as a natural language, obeying the constraints of the same language universals and subject to analysis by means of standard linguistic techniques. For her, interlanguage is not a single system, but a set of styles that can be used in different social contexts. Selinker and Adjemian stressed the influence of the first language on the emerging interlanguage. Selinker hypothesized the interlanguages as the product of different psychological mechanisms than native languages and hence are not natural languages. Adjemian and Tarone viewed interlanguages as operating on the same principles as natural languages, but Tarone stressed the notion of variability in use and the pragmatic constraints which determine how language is used in context. The interlanguage research has developed from the product orientation of the morpheme studies and error analysis to a more process orientation which focuses on form-function mappings and on the role of discourse in language acquisition. The interlanguage has various major issues like systematicity and variability, variation within systematicity, functional variation, systematic variability, non-systematic variability, the acquisition of the interlanguage, the functional approach, the role of discourse, conversational analysis, the role of the first language, transfer
as process and transfer as decision making. In contrast to Krashen's theory, the interlanguage theory had a minor impact on pedagogy.

3. Linguistic universals

The theory of universal grammar was planned by Noam Chomsky in 1950’s. This theory focuses on system internal factors and on the role of linguistic universals in second language acquisition. In order to explain the acquisition of formal properties of language it is necessary to assume an innate, and universal linguistic component. A linguistic universal is a model that occurs systematically across natural languages, potentially true for all of them. Linguists differentiate between two kinds of universals absolute and implication universals. Absolute universals apply to every known language and an implicational universal applies to languages with a particular feature which is always accompanied by another feature. Number of different approaches has been taken to the study of linguistic universals in second language research. The Greenbergian approach is data-driven and derives from an examination of the surface features of a wide range of human languages in an effort to determine how languages vary and what constraints and principles underlie this variation. The Chomskian approach is theory-driven and derives from in-depth analysis of the properties of language in an effort to determine the highly abstract principles of grammar that constrain the class of possible human beings.

Typological Universals:

The term ‘language typology’ refers to a field of study in which patterns that exist among the languages of the world are researched and described the possible variation found in human languages. The study of language universals and the study of language typology are complementary to each other. The study of universals focus on what is common to all languages and the study of typology focus on the difference that exists between languages.
Universal Grammar:

According to Chomskian generative grammar approach the first language learner acquires the language with innate, specific linguistic knowledge or universal grammar. Some principles are biologically determined and specialized for language learning. Universal grammar is taken to be the set of properties, conditions which constitute the ‘initial’ state of the language learner, hence the knowledge of language develops. Four considerations motivate interest on this research. They are as follows:

1) The need for a sufficiently sophisticated linguistic theory which describes the complex structural characteristics of interlanguages. Universal grammar provides a sophisticated and detailed linguistic theory to account for second language phenomenon.

2) The second language learners face a ‘projection problem’. Felix listed three limitations. First, some structures are very rare and marginal and it would not be possible for learners to obtain sufficient exposure to them. Second, incorrect hypothesis require negative feedback, but such feedback usually does not occur. Lastly, the rules of any grammar are highly abstract and do not reflect the surface properties of the language.

3) The development of parameter theory within generative theory allows for precise investigation of language variation including the variation between the native and target languages. Universal grammar sets the limits within which human languages vary.

4) Like first language learners, adult second language learners are sensitive to certain structural properties of language they are acquiring and they use these sensitivities in constructing the grammar of the language they are learning.
According to Chomsky, language acquisition is the growth of the mental organ of language triggered by certain language experiences. Acquisition refers to ideal language learning unaffected by maturation, processing limitations, memory restrictions and other cognitive and motivational factors. In Universal grammar theory child starts with all the principles of universal grammar available and all human languages conform to these principles. Felix argued that the principles of universal grammar are subject to an innately specified developmental process. Chomsky believes that universal grammar provides the only way for how children are able to acquire their native language. The principles of universal grammar involve a set of properties with certain parameters. These parameters remain ‘open’ until they are set by experience with the environment. For Chomsky, language acquisition is not so much a problem of acquiring grammatical rules, but rather a process where the learner sets the values of the parameters of the principles of universal grammar.

Universal Grammar shows a distinction between ‘core’ and ‘peripheral’ grammar. Core grammar refers to those parts of the language which have ‘grown’ in the child through the interaction of the Universal grammar with the relevant language environment. Peripheral elements are those that are derived from the history of the languages, which have been rented from other languages, or that have arisen accidentally. Universal grammar theory postulates that second language learning occurs as learners encounter more evidence from the second language and fix the parameters of the new grammar. It offers alternative to contrastive analysis in which a theory postulates a set of deep principles common to all languages and fundamental to both first and second language acquisition.

4. Acculturation/ Pidginization theory

In this theory the second language learning process emphasizes on socio-linguistic and social psychological factors. This research was greatly influenced by Schumann’s
innovative analogy between second language acquisition and pidginization. Many researchers viewed language as constantly changing over time.

Acculturation theory:

Linton (1963) described the general process of acculturation as involving modification in attitudes, knowledge and behavior. These modifications require not only the addition of new elements to an individual’s cultural background but also the elimination of certain previous elements and the reorganization of others. The process of acculturation demands both social and psychological adaptation. Acculturation is the process of becoming familiar to a new culture. This process involves learning the appropriate linguistic habits to function within the target-language group.

Schumann’s Social and Psychological Distance Hypothesis:

According to Schumann acculturation and second language acquisition is resolute by the amount of social and psychological ‘distance’ between the learner and the target-language culture. Social distance pertains to the individual as a member of a social group who is in contact with another social group whose members speak a different language. It is the result of domination versus subordination, assimilation versus adaptation versus preservation, enclosure, size, congruence and attitude. Psychological distance is the result of various effective factors that concern the learner as an individual such as declaration of language shock, culture shock, and culture stress, integrative versus instrumental motivation and ego permeability. The more the social and psychological distance between the second-language learner and the target-language group, the lower the learner’s degree of acculturation.

The social and psychological distance control second-language acquisition by determining the quantity of contact learners have with the target language and the degree to
which they are open to the input which is available. In a negative social situation, the learner receives little input in the second language whereas in a negative psychological situation the learners fail to utilize available input.

In Schumann’s model (1978), acculturation is the casual variable in the second language learning process. The beginning hours of second language acquisition are categorized by the processes which are responsible for the formation of pidgin languages. When there are hindrances to acculturation that is when social and/or psychological distance is great the learner will not grow beyond the early stages and the language will stay pidginized.

Andersen’s Nativization Model:

Andersen (1983) extended Schumanns framework by stressing to a greater degree the role of internal processing mechanisms. He distinguished ‘nativization’ and ‘denativization’ processes which are viewed as analogy to the piagetian notions of assimilation and accommodation. Nativization involves assimilation as the learners make the input confirm to an internalized view which constitutes the second-language system. The system can then be considered ‘native’ to the individual in that it is the individual’s mental capacity to construct such linguistic system that makes it possible for a new ‘native’ language to arise. Thus learners simplify the learning task by forming hypothesis based on innate, language specific knowledge.

Denativization consists of accommodation to the external system. During this process, the learner adjusts the internalized system to make the input fit. Nativization and denativization are used in Andersen’s model to capture the different directions the learner takes in building the interlanguage. Fossilization occurs in naturalistic adult language
acquisition because of a combination of social and psychological factors relating to acculturation.

Schumann proposed that early second-language acquisition is analogous to pidginization and that learners who do not acculturate remain fossilized in this pidginized stage.

According to Meisel, one of the traditional criteria of pidgin is that they are linguistically stable, which is not the case for the interlanguage of adult second language workers. Schumann suggested that an analogy between the early stages of second-language acquisition and the process of pidginization is based on a metaphor formulated by Whinnom (1971) who distinguished between primary, secondary and tertiary hybridization. The primary hybridization refers to a phenomenon involving the fragmentation of a species into different races. Secondary hybridization refers to the interbreeding of distinct species and is parallel to the imperfect speech of second-language learners acquired through restricted contact with speaker of the target language. Tertiary hybridization is the process by which new breeds of domestic animals or wild plant population are formed.

Schumann and others argued that secondary hybridization constitutes pidginization but tertiary hybridization is required for the formation of true pidgin. The second-language acquisition involves the process of pidginization, but it does not result in a pidgin language. Pidginization is a process that begin by the speaker using his native tongue and relexifying first only a few key words. Creolization is the acquisition of a pidgin language by the children of pidgin speakers. Pidginization is second-language learning with restricted input and creolization is first-language learning with restricted input. Andersen used the term ‘nativization, refers tot eh process where acquisition is directed ‘toward an internal norm’.
denativization is directed ‘toward the external norm’ and it is seen in the processes of depidginization, decreolization and the later phases of first and second language acquisition.

Bickerton and Odo (1976) argued that pidginization is second language acquisition with restricted input and as the input becomes less restricted through increased contact, second language development occurs through the process of depidginization.

5. Cognitive theory

The cognitive theory focuses on the role of cognitive processes in second-language acquisition. Cognitive theory is based on the work of psychologists and psycholinguists. Second-language learning is the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. To learn a second language is to learn a skill, because various aspects must be practiced and integrated into fluent performance. It requires the automatization of component sub-skills. Learning is a cognitive process, because it involves internal representation that regulates and guides performance. As performance improves, there is constant restructuring as learners simplify, unify, and gain increasing control over their internal representation. The two notions automatization and restructuring are central to cognitive theory. Automatic processing involves the activation of certain modes in memory every time the appropriate inputs are present. Since an automatic process which uses a relatively permanent set of associative connections in long-term storage, most automatic processes require an appreciable amount of training to develop fully. Once learned, an automatic process occurs rapidly and is difficult to suppress or alter. The second mode of information processing, controlled processing is not a learned reply, but a temporary activation of nodes in a sequence. Controlled processes are tightly capacity-limited and require more time for their activation. Controlled processes have the advantage of being relatively easy to setup, alter and apply to novel situations.
Learning involves the move of information to long-term memory and is regulated by controlled processes. The skills are learned and routinized only after the earlier use of controlled processes. Controlled processes regulate the flow of information from short-term to long-term memory. Learning involves time, but once automatic processes are set up at one stage in the development of a complex information processing skill, controlled processes are free to be allocated to higher levels of processing. According to Cognitive theory, second language learning involves the gradual integration of sub-skills as controlled processes initially predominate and then become automatic. The initial stages of learning occupy the slow development of skills and the gradual elimination of errors as the learner attempts to automatic aspects of performance.

Cognitive theory emphasizes the cognitive processes involved in the internalization of procedural knowledge that accounts for how learners gather and automatize rules and how they restructure their internal representation to match the target language. The acquisition of a cognitive skill is the result from the automatization of routines or units of activity.

Learning a second language involve the acquisition of complex cognitive skills, but it involves the acquisition of a complex linguistic skill as well. The cognitive perspective to second language learning is not a complete one. It is the only one way of looking at language learning. It becomes more powerful if it is complemented by linguistic research. Cognitive theory is a more ‘micro’ theoretical enterprise than interlanguage theory, universal grammar theory, or acculturation/pidginization theory. The specific focus of cognitive theory is the learning process which is viewed as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. The advantages of the cognitive theory over more subjective accounts of the learning process are that various empirical techniques have been developed for assessing the contribution of controlled and automatic processing.
The central premises of the cognitive theory are 1) learning a complex cognitive skill which involves the use of various information-handling techniques to overcome capacity limitations, 2) through exercise, component skills become automatized and controlled processes are untied for other functions and 3) constant reorganization of internalized representations as the learner achieves increasing degree of mastery.

2.2 Importance of speaking

Learning a second language involves four language skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among all these skills, speaking is an essential component for human communication. Listening and speaking are interrelated with each other. Both of these skills depend upon learner’s knowledge of vocabulary and articulation of words in the language. Chaney (1983) defines speaking, “as the process of building and contributing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts” (p.13). According to David Nunan (1989), the ability of speaking includes:

- Ability to speak without grammatical errors
- Where, when, why, how, what to speak awareness and
- Correct pronunciation and ability to present in an understandable way
- The consciousness of the grammatical, lexical and cultural features of the language

Speaking is an important skill which is “accepted by everyone as an essential language communication skill” (Burns & Goh, 2012, p.15) as “it is the most important skill which people use to express their ideas and interact with others in the daily life”. According to Palmers (1965) “learning to speak a language is always by far the shortest road to learning to read & write” (as cited in El, Koumy, 2001, p.86). Harmer (2005) states, “speaking as a difficult skill to be mastered because there is a lot more to speaking than the ability to form grammatically correct sentences” (p. iv).
Speaking is the combination of words, phrases and their full utterances. In speaking, learners need words. Second language learners face many problems in expressing their thoughts and ideas due to the lack of sufficient vocabulary. Vocabulary as a vital component of language learning facilitates fluency and expression of thoughts and ideas in speech and writing. Teaching words are a crucial aspect of learning a language as languages are based on words (Thornbury, 2002). Walter (2004) points out vocabulary as a central factor in teaching a language. According to Nation (1993 b) vocabulary enriches language use which in turn language use enhances vocabulary. Vocabulary is divided into receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) vocabulary. The receptive (passive) and productive (active) vocabulary is important for the improvement of the language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and also for effective communication. The studies on word frequency show that very small vocabulary is required for speaking than for writing because when we want to write something, we write more than speaking about it. According to West (1960), a minimum adequate speech vocabulary of 1200 head words would be sufficient for learners of English. The frequency counts of spoken English shows that a small number of words would be enough for a large proportion of spoken language. In order to develop learner’s spoken English vocabulary, the learners must be given the practice to say a lot using a very small number of words.

Therefore in order to communicate effectively, one should have a good knowledge of vocabulary. An optimal knowledge of vocabulary is very helpful for proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing. Without adequate vocabulary, learner’s achievement was less in real-life communication and academic success. Lack of vocabulary hinders the maximum use of language learning, and hence the students lag behind in their academic success as well as career development. Richard & Schmidt (1983) view that “communicative competence was understood as the underlying system of knowledge and skill required for communication”
(e.g., knowledge of vocabulary and skill in using the sociolinguistics of convention for a
given language).

According to Payne & Ross (2005) expressing oneself fluently and appropriately in
oral interaction is very important in language learning. When compared with reading and
writing, not much importance has been given to speaking skills. Speaking involves a two-way
system through which communication is achieved (Oprandy, 1994). “The use of films
provides language learners with authentic exposure and multimodal representation which will
help them to increase broad access to oral communication both visually and auditory”
(Tschirner, 2011). Films provide many situations in which characters speak English in the
real world. By watching movies, learners learn how to use language in different situations.
Films will be helpful in filling this gap by providing native like exposure to the learners.
Through film, the students will be exposed to a wide range of native speakers, a wealth of
contextualized vocabulary and authentic cross-cultural information. Since films expose
learners to authentic language, they can imitate the way of speaking including pronunciation,
speed, and intonation.

2.3 Definitions of speaking

According to Oxford Advanced Dictionary speaking is “to express or communicate
opinions, feelings, ideas, etc., by or as talking it involves the activities on the part of the
speaker as psychological (articulator) or physical (acoustic) stages.” Or “speaking is to make
use of language in an ordinary, not singing, to state view, wishes, etc. or an art of
spokesmen.”

According to Penny Ur (1996) “speaking is the most important skill for people who
know a language are referred to as ‘the speaker’ of a language”. In addition, speaking is the
ability which includes all other kinds of knowing. The productive skill in the oral mode (p.120).

2.4 Sub-skills of speaking

Language has been divided into four skills LSRW skills. Each skill is again divided into sub-skills. Many researchers and scholars divided speaking into many sub-skills. But speaking mainly involves two sub-skills. They are linguistic skills and communicative skills. These skills are further divided into various sub-skills. They are mentioned below in the form of a diagram.

![Diagram of Sub-skills of Speaking]

1. Making decisions & Implementing smoothly
2. Responding appropriately
3. Adjusting conversation
4. Altering words

*Figure 2: Sub skills of Speaking*
According to Geetha Nagarajan (2005: 98-184), there are six sub-skills of speaking. They are

- Producing meaningful sounds
- Produce sounds in meaningful chunks
- Produce language in syntactically acceptable patterns
- Produce language by means of proper stress, rhythm, and intonation
- Convey information

Formulate appropriate response

In David Nunan’s (1989) view, the ability of speaking includes

- Awareness of the grammatical, lexical and cultural features of the language
- Ability to speak without grammatical errors
- Where, when, why, how, what to speak awareness and
- Correct pronunciation and the ability to present an understandable way

2.5 Macro and micro skills of speaking

Speaking as a productive skill consists of macro and micro skills. Macro skills refer to the larger elements of fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, non-verbal communication and strategic options. Micro skills are the skills to produce smaller chunks of the language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations and phrasal units.

Micro skills on speaking

According to Brown (2004: 142), “speaking involves macro and micro skills in designing a task”. In his book Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language
Pedagogy, he mentioned about 16 macro and micro skills of oral communication. They are as follows:

1. Producing chunks of the language of different lengths.

2. The orally producing difference among the English phonemes, and allophonic variants.

3. Produce English words in stressed and unstressed position, stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed position, rhythmic structure and intonation contouring.

4. Producing reduced form of words and phrases.

5. Using an sufficient number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.

6. Producing fluent speech at different rates of delivery.

7. Monitoring one’s own oral production and using various strategic devices pauses, fillers, self-correction and back-tracking to entrance the clarity of the message.

8. Using grammatical word classes (noun, verb, etc.), the system (e.g., tense agreement, pluralization), word order, pattern, rules and elliptical forms.

9. Producing speech in natural constituents – inappropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences.

10. Expressing a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.


Macro-skills of speaking

Macro-skills are more complex than micro-skills. They are described below as follows
1. Appropriate accomplishing communicative function according to situations and participants goals.

2. Using appropriate styles, registers, implicature, redundancies, pragmatic conventions and convention rules, floor-keeping and yielding, interrupting and other socio-linguistic features in face-to-face conversation.

3. Using facial information, body language and other non-verbal cues along with verbal language to convey meanings.

4. Developing and using some strategies of speaking such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing context for interpreting the meaning words, appealing for help and accurately assessing how well one’s interlocutor understands others.

2.6 Elements of speaking

Speaking contains three elements which cannot be separated from each other. They are pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

Pronunciation

Pronunciation is the fact or manner of articulate utterance. Sometimes, the distance does not understand what the other person is talking due to lack of pronunciation. Stress and intonation are the two important features of good pronunciation. Pronunciation and stress are learnt by imitating and repetition.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary plays an important role in speaking. It is one of an essential element to learn before practising speaking. Harmer (1991) divides vocabulary into two types. They are active vocabulary and passive vocabulary. Active vocabulary is the words which the students
have learned and are able to produce them. Passive vocabulary is the words which students can recognise in the receptive skills such as listening and reading but can not produce in their productive skills such as speaking and writing.

**Grammar**

Grammar is the system of sentence analysis, rules, and labelling. It is the way or path to construct sentences in speech. Grammar is a structure of rules for speaking and writing. The study of language which deals with the forms and structure of words (phonology) and their arrangement in phrases and sentence (symbols).

**2.7 Functions of speaking**

Jack C. Richards in his article Developing Classroom Speaking Activities: From Theory to Practice, discusses the functions of speaking. He views that while designing speaking activities in second language teaching, it is necessary to recognize ‘diverse functions of speaking performed in daily communication for which our learners need speaking skills’.

Many researchers and linguists classified and categorized the functions of speaking. Brown and Yule (1983) classified functions of speaking into two types. They are interactional functions of speaking and transactional functions of speaking. Interactional functions of speaking serve to establish and maintain social relations and transactional functions of speaking focus on the exchange of information. But in a workshop, Jack C. Richards expanded Brown and Yule’s functions of speaking into three parts. They are as follows

a) Talk as interaction

b) Talk as transaction and
c) Talk as performance

**Talk as interaction**

According to Brown and Yule (1983) language is essential in order to interact and much of our communication remains interactional. It means that “conversation” describes the interaction and it is a social function. When people meet each other, they exchange wishes, involve in some talk, discuss something in order to establish a good relationship between each other. The exchanges may be either casual or formal depending on the situations and their nature.

The important features of talk as interaction are mentioned below as follows:

- Has a social function
- Reflects degree of politeness
- Uses generic words
- Jointly or collaboratively constructed
- Maybe formal or casual
- Uses conversational conventions
- Reflects role relationships

Some of the interactive skills are:

- Initiating and concluding the conversations
- Recounting personal incidents
- Making small-talk
• Selection of the topics
• Reacting to others
• Turn-taking
• Using adjacency pairs
• Interpreting

Examples of this kind of talk involve

Chatting with a school friend about coffee.

Telling a friend about an entertaining weekend experience and sharing personal recounts.

**Talk as transaction**

This talk refers to the situations where the focus is on what is said. The main focus is on the message and making oneself understood clearly and correctly. In this, talk is associated with other activities. For example, learners are engaged in hands-on activities to explore the concepts associated with floating and sinking. Jones (1996) view that in this type of talk, learners and teachers focus in mainly on the way to understand the meaning.

According to Anne Burns (as cited in Jack C. Richards), talk as the transaction is classified into two types. One is a situation where the main focus is on giving and receiving information where the participants’ concentration is on obtaining goods and services.

The main features of this talk are

• Main focus is on the message

• Participants use communication strategies to make themselves understood
• It has information focus primarily

• There may be negotiation and digression

• Linguistic accuracy is not always important

• There may not be frequent questions, repetitions, and comprehension checks.

Some of the skills required for talk as transaction are

• Describing something

• Explaining a need

• Confirming information

• Agreeing or disagreeing

• Making suggestion

• Asking for information

• Making comparisons

• Justifying an opinion

Examples of this kind of talk are

Making a telephone call to obtain train reservation information

Ordering food from menu in a restaurant

A class activity during which students plan a poster

Group discussions and solving activities in the classroom
Talk as the transaction can provide a source for practising how to use chat for sharing and obtaining information as well as for carrying real-world transaction. Talk as interaction is easier than talk as a transaction.

**Talk as performance**

This talk usually refers to public talk which conveys information to an audience like speeches and public announcements.

According to Jones (1996) that this kind of texts have identifiable generic structures and the language use is more predictable. Due to less context support, the speaker must include all necessary information in the text; hence the importance of topic as well as textbook knowledge.

Talk as performance is in the form of a monologue rather than dialogue. It is closer to written language than conversational language. The important features of this talk are

- The focus is both on message and audience
- It reflects organization and sequencing
- Form and accuracy are important
- Language is more like written language.

Some of the skills involved in talk as performance are

- Using correct pronunciation
- Using an appropriate format
- Presenting information in an appropriate sequence
- Maintaining audience engagement and creating an effect on the audience.
- Using appropriate words
- Good use of grammar
- Using suitable opening and closing

Examples of talk as performance are

- Giving a class report about school trip
- Making sales presentation
- Conducting class debate
- A speech of welcome
- Giving lecture

2.8 Bygate’s perspective on speaking:

Martin Bygate’s theory on speaking (1972:3) includes two important features on speaking. The first feature is the knowledge of the language, and the other is the skilful use of the language. Not only a good knowledge of the language is necessary for the speaker, but he/she should also know how to use it in different situations.

According to Bygate (1987:7), the speaking skill involves two components. They are production skill and interaction skill.

Production skills:

In Bygate’s view, time pressure affects language production, and the speaker has to use the devices in order to ‘facilitate’ the production and the speaker have to ‘compensate’
for the difficulties. In his opinion simplifying structures, ellipsis, formulaic expressions and using fillers and hesitations devices are the four elementary ways of felicitation.

In order to correct or change what the speaker has said, the compensation devices like substitution, rephrasing, reformulating, self-correction, false starts, repletion, and hesitation should be used by the speaker. He views incorporating felicitation and compensation in teaching and learning is very important in order to improve student’s oral communication.

Interaction skill:

In spoken interaction, the speaker and listener should be able to produce coherent language in different situations. The speaker should be good at saying what he wants to say and the listener should comprehend the speech. The communication of meaning depends on two skills such as ‘routines’ and ‘negotiation.’ The information routines frequently involve recurring types of information structures (stories, description, comparison, and instructions) and it is a kind of information routines. Based on the functions, Bygate divided information routines into evaluative routines (explanations, predictions, and decisions) and expository routines (narration, description and instructions).

The second type of information routines is interaction routines which deal with the logical organization and order of the parts of the conversation. Telephonic conversations, interviews, and conversation at the party are the examples of interaction routines.

Bygate (1987:23) says that negotiation skills make the speaker and listener understand what they want to speak to each other. Negotiation skills include the management of the interaction and negotiation of meaning. Negotiation skills contain two aspects such as “management of negotiation” and “negotiation of meaning” (skills of communicating ideas, signalling, understanding, and misunderstanding.
According to Bygate, the ‘management of interaction’ is the first aspect of the negotiation skills and it refers to ‘the business of agreeing who is going to speak next and what he/she is going to speak about. The ‘agenda of management’ and ‘turn taking’ are the two aspects of management of interaction. The choice of the topic, its length, the beginning, and ending are controlled by the agenda of management and how to signal, what one wants to speak, recognizing the right moment to get chance to speak and how to use it properly, recognizing other people’s signal and how to let other to have turn are the important features of turn taking.

The two aspects of negotiation skills consist of the ‘level of explicitness’ (choice of expressions with regard to interlocutor’s knowledge) and ‘procedure of negotiation’ (how the speaker uses paraphrases, metaphors and varying vocabulary).

2.9 Harmer’s perspective on speaking:

Jeremy Harmer (2001) divides the elements of speaking into two types ‘language features’ and ‘mental, social processing.’ These two features are very important for fluent oral communication. Language features which are essential for oral production contain connected speech, expressive devices, Lexis, and grammar. Language features are mentioned below as follows:

Connected speech: is to convey fluent connected speech which includes assimilation, elision, liking ‘r,’ contractions & stress patterning – weakened sound.

Expressive devices: pitch, stress, speed, volume, physical nonverbal expressions to convey meaning (supra-segmental features).

Lexis & grammar: supply common lexical phrases for different functions (agreeing, disagreeing, expressing shock, surprise, approval, etc.).
Negotiation language: to seek clarification and show the structure of what we are saying (p. 269 -270).

The mental/ social processing contains three features like language processing, interacting with others and on the spot information processing.

Language processing is the processing the language in the correct order so that it can be comprehensible and convey meaning. It also includes retrieval of words, phrases, and memory and assembling them syntactically and proportionally into appropriate sequences.

Interacting with others includes listening and understanding participants feeling and their linguistic knowledge.

On the spot, information processing is processing the information instantly to the listener what the speaker gets immediately in his/her mind.

In order to have successful oral communication, the speaker requires a good knowledge of language features, ability to process the information on-spot.

2.10 Methods of teaching speaking skills

Many researchers and theorists view that students learn to speak in the second/foreign language by interacting inside or outside the classroom. Teachers employ many methods and techniques to teach speaking in the classroom. Various researchers have done research on the methods and approaches of language teaching. They are Grammar-Translation Method (GMT), Direct Method (DM), Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Collaborative Language Learning (CLL).
Grammar Translation Method (GMT)

In all the second or foreign language methods, grammar-translation methods took a long period to evolve into a universal foreign language teaching method. Its impact is great and long-lasting even today. Grammar-translation method survives in various forms in all parts of the world (Joseph C. Mukalel 2005:45). The GMT is a method of foreign or second language teaching which uses translation and grammar as the most important teaching and learning activities, and it focuses on developing student’s appreciation of the target language’s literature and teaching the language. It concentrates more on reading and writing than speaking and writing.

Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

The audio-lingual method is a method of language teaching which focuses on teaching listening before reading and writing. It was developed during Second World War in the US due to a great necessity to set up a special language training programme to supply personnel in war. The skills taught in the ALM follows the particular order which is mentioned below (Nagraj 1996).

Listening → Speaking → Reading → Writing (p.28)

Figure 3: Skills taught in ALM

In the book “Approaches To English Language teaching” (Joseph C. Mukalel 2005) mentions that “ALM is closely linked to the psychological idea of behaviorism: a response triggered by stimulus: and reinforcement which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future. ALM provides great enthusiasm and motivation in a foreign language. ALM has the capacity of providing satisfactory second language atmosphere in the classroom which is
a prerequisite for the internalization of a new language as demands in the transformational generative system.” (p. 38-39).

**Direct-Method (DM)**

Direct method was developed around 1900 in Europe, and its main objective is that second language learning should be an imitation of the first language learning. It is a method of teaching foreign language through conversation in pupils mind directly without the use of mother tongue. It deals with language through conversation, discussion and reading and direct explanation of grammar rules.

According to Richards and Rogers (2001: 12) and Karlfried Knapp, Barbara Seidlhofer (2009: 345) “classroom instruction would be exclusively in the target language, teaching vocabulary and sentences, teaching grammar inductively, modeling and practice with new points, vocabulary through appropriate demonstration using pictures and objects, teaching both listening and speaking comprehension and emphasis on correct pronunciation and grammar.

**Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

CLT was developed in the late 1960s and 1970s in Britain as a replacement for the structural and audio-lingual method. It was based partly on Chomsky’s criticisms of structural theories of language and partly on the theories of British functional linguists like Firth and Halliday and American sociolinguists such as Hymes, Gumperz & Labov and the writings of Austin and Searle on speech acts. According to Jack C. Richards (2001) “CLT is a broad approach to teaching that resulted from a focus on communication as the organizing principle for teaching which resulted from a focus on the mastery of the grammatical system of the language”(36).
In David Nunan’s view, (as cited in Brown 1994:74) there are five main features of communicative language teaching. They are as follows

An prominence on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.

The involvement of authentic texts into the learning situation”.

The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also on the learning management process.

An enhancement of the learners owns personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

According to Richards & Rodgers (1986), the teaching and learning of communicative language teaching are unlimited activities which are compatible with communicative approach. The activities are designed to make the students attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage students in communication, and require the use of communicative processes. The activities include information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction.

**Suggestopedia**

It was developed by Bulgarian Psychiatrist and educator George Lazanov in the year 1962. According to Xue(2005), Suggestopedia is a teaching method, which focus on how to deal with the relationship between mental potential and learning efficacy and it is appropriate to use it in teaching speaking for young learners. Suggestopedia uses drama, art, physical
exercise, de-suggestive / suggestive psychotherapy with the greatest emphasis on spoken language, reading, and writing.

**Communicative Language Learning (CLL)**

This method was developed by Charles A in the 1970s as a new educational model called “Counseling-Learning.” Curran’s application of psychological counselling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. Community Language Learning uses Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. In this method, the teacher acts as a counsellor who guides and assists learners. CLL was primarily designed for monolingual conversation classes where the teacher-counsellor would be able to speak the learners’ first language.

**2.11 Kinds of activities to teach speaking skills**

Many activities can be employed to develop speaking skills of the students. According to Littlewood (1981:16–64), speaking activities are classified into two types. They are functional communicative competence activities and social and interactive activities. Some of the activities which can be used in order to develop speaking skills of the students are listed below

1) **Role-play**: role play is an activity which can be performed in pairs or groups by creating interaction among themselves. In role-play, the students have to imagine themselves in the particular character and enact according to the given situation. According to Harmer (2001), “students ‘simulate’ real-life situations as if they were doing so in the real world, either as themselves or taking the role of the character different from themselves.” Some of the examples of role-playing include, e.g., meeting a friend in the bus stop after a long time and discussing their education and, e.g., a conversation between a teacher and a
student. Role play develops fluency of language, promotes interaction and increase motivation among the students.

2) **Discussions**: discussion provides important opportunities to put the resources acquired through more controlled practice into action. According to Marianne Celce-Murcia (2001), “discussions are the most commonly used in the speaking skills classroom activity” (p. 106). Discussions encourage students to speak about various topics which include their performances, opinions, interests, and experiences. She states that “several steps should be taken by the teacher before starting discussion activity and give a clear-cut idea about what the students are supposed to discuss, why they are discussing and the expected outcome.” Discussions gave a chance for each and every student; improve fluency and increases debating skills.

3) **Interviews**: Activities on formal and informal interviews in the classroom offer an opportunity to the students for developing or practising speaking. Kay (2006) view that, “Interviews not only helps the learners to communicate in the target language but also helps them to socialize.” This kind of activities familiarizes students for various situations and how to speak in a particular context. Interview based activities help the students for facing real-life situations.

4) **Prepared talk**: it is a kind of activity where students can make a presentation based on the topic of their choice. Jeremy Harmer states that “these talks are not designed for formal conversation because the students prepare them, and it involves writing like preparing a script” (p.273). These talks give a chance for putting their original thoughts and ideas on paper and build confidence among them.

5) **Dialogues**: Dialogues are one of the most significant mediums in language teaching which helps the students for practising speech, pronunciation, intonation, and stress. Dialogue is a two-way communication which involves not only what the speaker is
saying but also to comprehend what the speaker says. The dialogues could be situational, contextual and constructed.

6) **Conversation**: conversation is a talk between two or more people in which thoughts, ideas, and feelings are expressed, questions are asked or answered, or news and information are exchanged.

7) **Pair-work and Group-work**: Andrian, Dolf (1991, 137) view that “pair work and group work are the most important methods of generating new ideas which give an opportunity for every student to participate in the classroom. In pair-work, teacher divides the class into pairs, and two students should form a pair and do the activity at the same time. It provides opportunities for intensive listening and speaking practice”. According to Harmer () with the help of pair work, students can practice language together, study a text, research language or take part in information gap activities (p. 115).

Andrian Dolf (1991) believes that groups work as the division of the class into small groups consists of four to five students in each and work together at the same time as similar to pair work (p.115).

Both pair and group activities arouse interest among students, motivates them, create a positive atmosphere, gives a chance to the students to practice and receive feedback from peers.

8) **Jokes and Funny Stories**: using jokes as teaching materials in the class promotes fluency and sociolinguistic rules among students. The use of jokes in the classroom makes the situation more conducive and fun. This kind of activities makes communication more enjoyable and active in the classroom.

9) **Guessing games**: guessing games are the games where students can develop, add diversion to regular activities or break the ice activities. Games give a chance for
speaking and provide fun and relaxation. These activities encourage the students for communication. They are based on the question like what, who, where, how, when, etc.

10) **Reporting**: Reporting is one of the interesting activity which gives scope for the students to speak in the class. Teachers can ask students to report on various issues like to report any incidents, experiences and the news they heard.

11) **Picture activities**: Picture activities are valuable and interesting speaking activities. Various pictures can be used in the classroom to give a clear idea about a particular thing. The pictures can be taken from newspapers, textbooks, and magazines. Three different types of picture activities can be used in the classroom. They are (1) picture narration, (2) picture description and (3) picture difference.

12) **Information-gap activities**: According to Kumaravadivelu (2006) information gap activities involve transfer of given information generally calling for the coding and decoding of information from one to another as suggested in the pair work in which each individual of the pair has a part of information needed to complete task and attends to convey it verbally to each other. These activities are very effective and give scope for every individual to speak in the target language.

## 2.12 Factors affecting speaking skills

There are many factors which influence second language speaking such as age, aptitude, intelligence, cognitive style, attitudes, motivation and personality (Ellis, 1985).

**Motivation**: motivation is one of the most important factors in second language acquisition. Richards (1985) believes that motivation is an important factor which determines a person’s desire to do something (p.185). According to Gardner & Lambert (1972), ‘motivation’ is the learner's overall goal or orientation and ‘attitude’ is the persistence shown by the learners in striving for a goal’ (Ellis 1985, p. 117). They classified motivation into two types. They are
integrative and instrumental motivation. “Gardner (1979) links an integrative motivation to ‘additive bilingualism’ which means that learners add a second language to their skills with no harm to their mother tongue. Instrumental motivation is linked to ‘subtractive bilingualism,' where the learners tend to replace the mother tongue by the target language” (Ellis, 1985).

Motivation can also be distinguished into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsically motivated behaviours aim at bringing certain internally rewarding consequences, such as feelings of competence and self-determination (Edward Deci, 1975 as cited in Brown, 1994, p.155). Extrinsically motivated behaviours expect a reward such as money, praise or positive feedback. According to Maslow (1970) and many other researchers view that intrinsic motivation leads to greater success in learning a foreign language (Brown, 1994).

Attitude: Ellis (1985) views attitude as a set of beliefs about various factors such as target language, their own culture in case of classroom learning, of their teachers and the learning task. Language attitudes are the attitudes which the speakers of different languages have towards other’s languages or towards their own language. Expression of positive or negative opinion towards a language may reflect impression of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degrees of important social status, etc. (Richards, 1985, p. 155). Gardner & Lambert investigated different attitudes, which are classified by Stern (1985, p. 376-367) into three types. They are mentioned below as follows;

a) Attitudes towards the community and people who speak L2,

b) Attitudes towards learning and language concerned,

c) Attitudes towards language and language learning in general.
Age: age is one of the factors that influence second language learning. It is believed that children are better at language acquisition than adults. The Critical period hypothesis by Lenneberg proposed that there is a period during which language can be acquired more easily than at any other time. According to him, critical period lasts until puberty, and it is due to biological development. He views that language learning becomes more difficult after puberty because the brain lacks the ability and adaptation (Richards: 1985, p. 68).

Intelligence: according to Ellis (1985) intelligence is the general ability to master academic skills (p. 293). The studies on intelligence show a strong relationship between intelligence and foreign language acquisition. Learners with high IQ achieve better results on language tests. It is proved that intelligence can predict the rate of success of SLA in the formal language classroom (Genesee, 1976).

Gardener (1983) introduced a theory of multiple intelligences. According to him, there are eight types of intelligence. They are

i) Linguistic intelligence (sensitive to spoken & written language, the capacity to use the language to accomplish certain goals).

ii) Spatial intelligence (sensitive to recognize and use the patterns of wide space and more confined areas).

iii) Logical-mathematical intelligence (ability to detect patterns, reason deductively and think logically).

iv) Musical intelligence (capacity to recognize and create musical pitches and rhythmic patterns).

v) Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (ability to use mental abilities to coordinate bodily movements).
vi) Interpersonal intelligence (capacity to understand intentions, motivations, and desires of other people).

vii) Intrapersonal intelligence (ability to understand oneself, to develop a sense of self-identity).

ix) Naturalistic intelligence (ability to understand the natural world).

Aptitude: aptitude refers to the specific ability learner has for learning a second language (Ellis, 1986, p. 293). In Richards (1985) words aptitude is the natural ability to learn a language (p. 154). Caroll and Sapon’s Modern Language Aptitude Test (1959) and Pimsleur's Language Aptitude Battery (1966) are the first tests which measure aptitude. According to Caroll aptitude is a stable factor, which cannot be trained and it is separate from motivation, achievement, and intelligence. He identified from factors in language aptitude. They are phonemic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, inductive learning ability and rote learning ability. The studies conducted by Skehan (1986) focused on the underlying concept of language skill and its relation to first language acquisition and second language learning. He identified two predictors of the language aptitude. One is the ‘general language processing capability,’ and the other is the ‘ability to use language in a decontextualized way.’ His findings have shown that aptitude consists of abilities identified by earlier researchers and the ability to deal with context-free language, which is connected with learning academic skills and intelligence (Ellis, 1994).

Cummins (1983) distinguished language abilities into two types Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). In his views, CALP is related to general intelligence and BICS to aptitude.
Learning styles: learning style is a cognitive style. It is a way through which a learner learns something. In a second language or foreign language learning, different learners prefer different methods. Some learners require explanations for grammatical rules (audio learners), and some think that by writing something will help them to remember (kinesthetic learners) while some feel that they remember better if they are associated with picture (visual learners) (Richards: 1985, p. 45).

According to Keefe (1979, as cited in Ellis, 1994), learning styles are “the characteristically cognitive, affective and physiological behaviours which serve as the stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact and respond to the learning environment.” Learners genetic background, their culture and previous learning experience have an effect on their learning styles.

Brown (1994) presents a table mentioning left and right brain characteristics by Torrance (1980). Left-brain dominated students are intellectual, prefer established certain information, rely on language in thinking and remembering. Right-brain dominated students are intuitive, process information in a holistic way, rely on drawing and manipulating to help them think and learn.

Reid (1987) classified learning styles into four types. They are visual (seeing), auditory (listening), kinesthetic (moving) or tactile (touching). Visual learners learn by seeing pictures, wall displays, diagrams, and videos. Auditory learners learn through listening verbal instructions like listening dialogues, discussions and plays. Kinesthetic learners learn by moving and doing. Tactile learners learn through touching. They use writing and drawing and learn well by participating in projects and demonstrations.

Personality: it has been described as a set of features which characterize an individual. This concept is difficult to define and measure due to its complicated nature. Researchers
believe that some of the personality factors are beneficial and others for language learning and some others as obstacles in learning a second language. Introversion/extroversion, self-esteem inhibition, risk-taking, anxiety, and empathy are the important personality factors (Ellis, 1986, pp. 119-121).

a) Self-esteem: in order to succeed, people require the degree of self-esteem and self-confidence. According to Coopersmith (1967, as cited in Brown, 1994, p.137), the definition of self-esteem is the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful or worthy. The results of the research showed that self-esteem as an important variable in second language acquisition. Many studies indicated a positive relationship between high self-esteem and academic achievement (Gardner & Lambert, 1972: Brodley & Shore, 1976).

b) Inhibition and risk-taking: the concept of inhibition is strongly related to self-esteem. When higher the self-esteem the lower the walls of inhibition and greater success in learning a foreign language. Inhibition influences language learning in a negative way because it discourage the risk-taking.

c) Anxiety: anxiety is another important factor which affects learning a foreign language. According to (Brown, 1994) anxiety is a state of mind connected with “feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt and worry” (p.141). Maclntyre and Gardner (1991) classified anxiety into two types, trait anxiety, and state anxiety. They have also identified three components of foreign language anxiety such as communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation and test anxiety. “Both too much and too little anxiety may hinder the process of successful second language learning” (Brown, 1994, p.143).
d) Empathy & extroversion: the other element of personality is empathy which is “the willingness and capacity to identify with others” (Stern, 1993, p.381). Empathy is an important factor in learning a foreign language. According to Schumann (1975), it is an essential factor in the overall ability to acquire the second language rather than simply in the ability to acquire an authentic pronunciation” (p.226).

### 2.13 Speaking and vocabulary

Speaking is very important for each and every individual who uses any language for communication. Since speaking is essential for everyone; other skills are also necessary in order to be effective in speaking English. All the four language skills listening, speaking, reading and writing are required in order to learn English, and all these skills are interrelated with each other. According to (Dash & Dash 200) “listening leads to speaking, speaking leads to reading which in turn leads to writing.” In other words, writing depends upon the reading skill. The skill of reading depends upon speaking which depends upon listening (p.36-38).

Speaking is interrelated with other skills such as reading, writing, vocabulary, and grammar.

**Speaking and Listening**

Listening is a passive process by which the listener receives the information sent by the speaker. Listening is classified into two types. One is ‘one-way-listening’ which is associated with information (transactional listening), and the other is ‘two-way-listening’ which is associated with maintaining social relations (interactional listening).

According to Robert (1974), “speaking can be thought of like a mirror image of listening skill for which the same linguistic and cultural knowledge is required” (p.189).

Mendelson, Jack C. Richards & Willy A. Renandya (2005) states that “in the listening process, the learner must understand the text by retaining information in memory,
integrate which that follows, and repeatedly adjust their understanding of what they hear in the light of prior knowledge and of incoming information.

Listening is the process of hearing, recognizing and interpreting or comprehending language. Listening is the Cinderella skills in second language learning. Listening comes next after the Krashen’s (1982) comprehensible input. There is a close relationship between listening and speaking. According to Anderson & Lynch (1998), the listener has the opportunity to indicate understanding or non-understanding and to intervene when clarification is needed during communication.

**Speaking and reading**

Reading is all about understanding the written word. It is the input for the learner to get information on any subject. It is the best way for the learners to get information on any subject for learning new words. Reading newspapers, magazines, novels, advertisements, etc. allows learners to become aware of their limitation and skills of communication. According to Harmer (1998), “Good reading texts introduce interesting topics, stimulate discussions, excite imaginative responses and are the springboard for well rounded fascinating lessons” (p. 68).

**Speaking and Writing**

Writing and speaking are required for the students in order to develop language skills. Writing is one of the most difficult skills like speaking, and it involves complex skills. Speaking and writing skills are productive skills.

**Speaking and Grammar**

Grammar is the system of rules which govern the arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. Larsen-Freeman (1991) opines that “grammar is one of the three
dimensions of language. The first is the form (structures of the language) and the second one is semantics (meaning), and the third is pragmatics. All these three are interconnected (p. 29).

**Speaking and vocabulary**

Speaking means the combination of words and their utterances. In Richards & Schmidt (1983) view, “communicative competence was understood as the underlying system of knowledge and skill required in using the sociolinguistics of convention for a given language. Vocabulary aids expression and communication. Unless there is a basic vocabulary, it is difficult to express one’s view. Using right word at the right time is one of the characteristics of a good speaker.

Speaking need three important elements of language like grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary (linguistic competence) and also to understand when, why and in what ways to produce language (sociolinguistic competence). According to (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Carter & Mc Carthy, 1995; & Cohen, 1996), “Speech has its own skills, structures, and conventions different from written language.”

The diagram shown below shows the relationship of speaking skills with other skills.

![Diagram of Speaking and other skills](image)

**Figure 4: Speaking and other skills**
2.14 Definitions of vocabulary:

Many researchers have defined vocabulary in different terms. According to Hornby (1995) vocabulary is “the total number of words in a language. Neuman & Dwyer (2009, p. 385) defined vocabulary as “words we must know to communicate effectively; words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary).” Ur (1998) mentions vocabulary “roughly as the words we teach in a foreign language.” Burns (1972) defines vocabulary as “the stock of words which are used by a person, class or profession.

Graves (2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990) defines vocabulary as the entire stock of words belonging to a branch of knowledge or known by an individual. Miller (1999, as cited in Zimmerman, 2007), states vocabulary as a set of words that are the basic building blocks used in the generation and understanding of sentences.

According to Gardner (2009, as cited in Adger, 2002) vocabulary is not only confined to the meaning of words but also includes how vocabulary in a language is structured, how people store words and how they learn words and the relationship between words, phrases, categories of words and phrases (Graves, 2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990).

Vocabulary means knowledge of the words in English. According to Cambridge Advanced Learners’ Dictionary vocabulary means

1. All the words are known and used by a particular person

2. All the words, which exist in a particular language

(CALD p.1423)

According to the Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary vocabulary means

1. All the words a person knows or uses
2. All the words in a particular language

3. The words that people use when they are talking about a particular subject

4. A list of words with their meanings, especially in a book for learning.

(OALD p. 1707)

2.14 Kinds of vocabulary:

There are three kinds of vocabulary in language use. They are active or productive vocabulary, passive or receptive vocabulary and ad hoc vocabulary.

Active or productive vocabulary is the vocabulary that the learners understand and can pronounce correctly and use in speaking and writing. Productive vocabulary is an active process because the learners can produce the words to express their thoughts to others (Stuart Webb, 2005).

Passive or receptive vocabulary is the vocabulary that learners recognize and understand when they are used in context, but which they cannot produce (Hatch & Brown, 1995). It is the vocabulary that learners recognize when they see or meet in reading the text, but do not relate it in speaking and writing (Stuart Webb, 2009).

Ad hoc vocabulary is the vocabulary which is not immediately useful.

There are many reasons to teach and learn vocabulary in L2 since vocabulary knowledge has an impact on other abilities which contribute to successful L2 learning. They are described below as follows

i. Vocabulary is the basis of any language learning.

ii. Language consists of grammatical lexis, not lexicalized grammar.
iii. Continuous enriching and enlarging vocabulary enhance learner’s knowledge of comprehension of texts in L2.

iv. Vocabulary plays an active role in both receptive and productive language skills.

v. Vocabulary is crucial for achieving academic success and for seeking better employment opportunities.

vi. Vocabulary is essential for communicating and expressing ideas and feelings.

vii. Vocabulary contributes to phonological awareness and word recognition.

2.16 Strategies to teach vocabulary using films

Many strategies have been used in teaching and learning vocabulary. They are

a) Guessing words in context:

This is one of the good methods to handle with unknown vocabulary. This activity can be done by the students by doing extensive reading and by repeated exposure to some sources. There are different procedures which guide learners in guessing words from context. According to Nation and Coady (1999), there are two types of contexts. The first type is the context within the text, which include morphological, semantic and syntactic information in a specific text and the second one is the general context, or non-textual context, which is the background information the reader has about the subjects being read. Learning from context not only includes learning from extensive reading but also learning from taking part in the conversation and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio (Nation, 2001). The use of this technique encourages learners to take risks and guess the meanings of the words they do not know. It builds self-confidence and helps the learners in guessing the meanings of words. There are many clues which the learners can use such as illustrations, the
resemblance of spelling or sound in the mother tongue and general knowledge (Walters, 2004).

b) Translation:

It is another method of presenting difficult words to learners. Yet translation does not create a need or motivation of the learners to think about word meaning (Cameron, 2001), in some situations translations could be effective. Translation could be effective when dealing with incidental vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002). In order to understand difficult words in English, teachers have to translate these words into their L1.

c) Demonstrations and visuals:

This is one way of conveying the meaning of words. In this method of presentation, teachers bring things like pictures, realia and flash cards to the classroom. Visuals are usually much thicker to show the item than to explain the meaning. They make lessons interesting and lively.

d) Word formation:

Word formation is another way to teach vocabulary. Learners should have the skill of identifying prefixes and suffixes. The first one is the ability to break new words into parts in order to differentiate the roots from affixes. Second is the need to know the meaning of the parts, and the third is the need to see the connection between the meaning of the parts and the dictionary meaning of the new words. (Harmer, 2007)

e) Selection and teaching of words:

The main aim of teaching vocabulary is to establish the importance of the meaning and form the new words as well as to show how these words are used in context. Proper planning is
essential to facilitate the use of the new words contextually. But it is not good to expect the students to learn many words at one exposure. The vocabulary that is selected for teaching should make its way into the students’ active vocabulary. Other words and phrases will become a part of their receptive/passive vocabulary which they can understand when presented in the spoken or written form.

Presentation

The selected words should be explained carefully through a clear demonstration. Vocabulary can be presented

- Showing a picture, drawing, real objects, etc
- Performing action
- Asking questions
- Presenting a short passage or dialogue which uses the vocabulary that is selected for teaching
- Creating situations, especially to bring out the meaning of the abstract words like love, happiness, and quality.

Practice

Practice can be given by giving more examples to the students. The teacher should direct the students to use the words orally first and to use the words in context in order to help the students to understand the word. The practice of using the words meticulously will make the students ‘produce’ or ‘use’ the words instinctively in the context of real-life situations.
2.18 Techniques of teaching vocabulary

Nation (2001) has employed various techniques of communicating word meaning. They are as follows

- by performing actions
- by showing objects
- by showing pictures and diagrams
- by defining in the first language
- by defining in the second language
- by giving instruction/reading text/ providing small listening pieces of text
- by providing language context clues using good vocabulary tasks.

Nation (2001) views gestures, real objects, pictures and diagrams as the most valid ways of communicating the meaning of a word. Using these in combination with the verbal input leads to ‘dual coding,’ where the meaning is stored both linguistically and visually.

i) Realia: this technique includes the use of realia, visual aids and demonstration. These can function

ii) Objects such as bag, pencil, paper, flower, pebble, pen, etc. can be brought to the classroom to teach vocabulary. It is very effective at the primary level.

iii) Pictures: teaching through the pictures is another way of teaching vocabulary. Pictures connect students prior knowledge to new knowledge and help them learn new words (Takac, 2008). First, the pictures can be used for teaching the words orally and later
the learners are asked to match the words with pictures. This technique is also effective at the primary level.

iv) Texts: texts are the best resources to teach vocabulary. First, select the words in the text and give the meanings in a mixed up order on the blackboard. Ask the students to go through the text and find the words that fit the meaning.

v) Different texts: another technique is to motivate the students in vocabulary activities by introducing and words in different context. When learning the new words the students need to recognize how and where they can be used. This is achieved through role plays. Role plays provide a new way to use new words and expressions.

vi) Vocabulary in context: vocabulary teaching becomes meaningful when it is done in context. A word get its connotation from its context. Learners can be asked to use dictionaries in order to learn commonly used words, phrases, idioms, and proverbs.

vii) Vocabulary games and crosswords: This is one of the excellent ways to enhance learners’ vocabulary. It creates interest in the learners. Word strips should be given to the students and are asked to add prefixes and suffixes to make new words. These kinds of activities are very useful for vocabulary expansion.

viii) Brainstorming: it is also one of the interesting techniques to learn new words. Another way of teaching words is to discuss the favourite topics and the reason for choosing that word.

ix) Using gestures and symbols: a lot of words can be presented by using gestures and symbols. Klippel (1994) claims that “mime or gesture is useful if it emphasizes the importance of gestures and facial expression on communication. Tellier (2007) mentioned about three main roles for teaching gestures; management of the class (to
start/end activity, to question students, request silence, etc.) evaluation (to show a mistake, to correct, to congratulate, etc.) and explanation to give students indications on syntax, underline specific prosody, explain new vocabulary, etc). Teaching through gestures appears in various ways such as hand gestures, facial expressions, pantomime, body movements, etc. These help the learners in inferring the meaning of a spoken word or expression. This teaching technique is relevant for comprehension (Tellier, 2007) and is effective at the early stages of learning.

Peer teaching: in peer teaching, the students teach vocabulary items or words to each other.

Giving meanings or definitions in English: here teacher writes the definitions or meanings of the words on the blackboard.

2.17 Vocabulary in language teaching and learning

Vocabulary is an essential component of language proficiency and provides the basis for understanding how well learners listen, speak, read and write. Vocabulary is the dominant constituent in learning a second language (Barcroft, 2004; Hunt & Beglar, 2005; Kim, 2008). Vocabulary, as one of the knowledge areas in language, plays a great role for learners in acquiring a language (Cameron, 2001). Harmon, Wood & Keser (2009) and Linse (2005) opined learners vocabulary development is an important aspect of the language development. Schmidt (2000) pointed out that “lexical knowledge is central for communicative competence and acquisition of second language” (p. 55).

According to Lord “vocabulary is by far the most large and unmanageable component in the learning of any language, whether for a foreign or one’s mother tongue because of thousands of different meanings (Lord, 1998:83). Lewis points out that vocabulary attainment
is the main task of second language acquisition and the language skills as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating all cannot go without vocabulary.

In learning English as a second and foreign language, learning vocabulary plays a fundamental role in all language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) (Nation, 2011). Rivers and Nunan (1991) argued that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because, without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for comprehensible communication.

Research has shown that second language readers rely very much on vocabulary knowledge and the lack of that knowledge is the main and the largest barrier for L2 readers to overcome (Huckin). Wilkins (1972) states that, “there is not much value in being able to construct grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say that, “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”

According to Richard (1997), it’s vital to know a lot of words if one wants to make progress in a foreign language. Even if one's grammar is excellent, he/she won’t be able to communicate the meaning without a wide vocabulary. Vocabulary is one of the important elements in mastering all the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). In order to communicate successfully, the knowledge of vocabulary is very important. The richer the vocabulary, the better we can communicate. Vocabulary will make the students practice the structure more easily; it is useful for the students in order to communicate in daily life and will strengthen the belief that English can be used to express some ideas or to feel they express in their native language (Finocchiaro, 1974; 38). The larger vocabulary also helps the learners in studying other subjects like Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Business
Correspondence, etc. Bella Fiore (1968:1) stated that “The larger the vocabulary you build up, the better able you are to define and refine the expression of the images and ideas.”

She said, “The more words you master richer become your thought process, and the better you distinguish between shades of word meanings, the subtler grows your expression of ideas.”

According to Laufer (1986), “No language acquisition whether first, second or foreign language, child or adult can take place without the acquisition of lexis.” According to McCarthy (1990; viii) “no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way”. From a Layman’s point of view, since language is the medium of communication and it is in words that ideas and meanings are “enshrined” (Vergheses 1989; 84); and “……. a poor vocabulary may result in inefficient communication and may give rise to misunderstanding”. Referring to Phun, 1986 (Wallace 1982) has said that after knowing the grammar rules of a language, one may not yet be able to communicate using the language. But, with the command of only the vocabulary needed in a certain situation, some form of communication is possible. According to Saville-Troike (1984, referred to by Richards, 1990), vocabulary knowledge in English is the most important aspect of students academic achievement, whereas the structural patterns or morphology has a little contribution in meeting students’ immediate academic success.

According to Gifford (2013), vocabulary is a perennial learning aspect of any language. “Vocabulary learning never stops even long after the grammar system is firmly in place” (Thornbury 2002, p.160).

Vocabulary knowledge enables language use in an effective manner. Vocabulary means knowing a word. Knowing a word involves being able to recognize it when it is heard.
Knowing a word involves both Receptive knowledge (what does it sound like?) when it is heard and Productive knowledge (what does it look like?) when it is seen. Hence having a good command of Receptive and Productive knowledge of words increases the vocabulary. “Knowledge of the word enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge and language use and so on” (Nation: 1993a).

Vocabulary learning has a close association with reading. Vocabulary knowledge has been recognized as a strong correlate of reading ability, which means that reading and vocabulary are interrelated. Hence reading improves vocabulary knowledge, and vocabulary knowledge supports reading development. Learners of English as a foreign language usually begin their reading with specially simplified texts. When they go through the texts, some guidelines on vocabulary and sentence structure is given in the text. The guidelines in the text will be helpful in knowing the meanings of various words through which we can expand our vocabulary. Batia Laufer discusses the lexical problems which will slow down the reading comprehension in L2. The problems are as follows 1) the problem of insufficient vocabulary, 2) misinterpretations of deceptively transparent words and 3) inability to guess unknown words. According to Laufer, a vocabulary of 3000-word families or 5000 lexical items is needed for general reading comprehension, as this would cover 90-95% of any text. Below this level, the level of reading strategies would become ineffective.

It is very difficult to guess the word meanings by using contextual clues. Guessing the meanings of the words can be improved by following any of the factors such as a) non-existence of clues b) lack of familiarity with the words in which clues are located c) presence of misleading or partial clues and d) incompatibility between the reader’s schemata and the text context. In order to make good guessing one should know about 98% of words in a text. For this, one should have knowledge of about 5000-word families. A good vocabulary size is
very important for good L2 reading and vocabulary guessing. In order to build a large sight of vocabulary requires accurate “sight,” i.e., word perception.

According to Krashen (1983) “reading is the most efficient means by which we can acquire new vocabulary.” Lexis is found to be the best predictor of success in reading, better than syntax or general reading ability. Whatever, the effect of reading strategies is, it is short-circuited if the vocabulary is below the threshold, i.e., below the minimum of 3000-word families, or 5000 lexical items.

According to Koda (1983) “there are strong connections between the L1 Orthographic system and L2 processing”. She argues that improves L2 vocabulary instruction, therefore, depends in part on a better understanding of the relationship and on its long-term impact on L2 processing. She claims that second language reading and vocabulary should be individualized, and it should be based more on L1 strategies than on L2 strategies.

Vocabulary development occurs naturally in L1 through contextualized naturally sequenced language; while in L2, it will develop with natural, communicative exposure in L2. Vocabulary is considered as an important element in language acquisition process. It is acquired by the Natural Approach. Acquisition depends crucially on the input being comprehensible, and comprehensibility is dependent directly on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Thus, the acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary (Krashen and Terell, 1983: p.155).

A large vocabulary provides a good lexical coverage of text (3000-word families or 5000) lexical items cover about 95% of a text). The higher the coverage, lower the density of unknown words. When the density is low, there is a good chance of finding clues to the unknown words. When more clues are available, then guessing becomes easier. Reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game. But words are toys that need to play it right. (K. Homiloglu).
The use of the bilingual dictionary in a consistent and appropriate manner would appear to have a positive impact on vocabulary development.

Reading and vocabulary abilities develop as a result of extensive reading practice. Extensive reading results in improved vocabulary, reading and listening comprehension.

Vocabulary words are learned regularly through repeated exposures in various discourse contexts. Krashen (1989) argues that language learners acquire vocabulary and spelling most efficiently by receiving comprehensible input while reading. Reading expertise in a language will acquire most of their vocabulary knowledge through extensive reading rather than from instruction. Krashen originally postulated the Input hypothesis for oral language acquisition and in a recent study of oral vocabulary acquisition. Ellis (1994) argues that it is “not comprehensible input that is important but comprehended input that is important.”

Krashen claims that Input hypothesis also applies to vocabulary acquisition by means of extensive reading. Lewis (1993) asserts that “language is not words and grammar; it is essentially lexical” (p.89). It is becoming increasingly apparent that we must enable students to learn and acquire a lexical base in order to achieve success in language learning. Extensive reading has a major role to play in this process.

2.18 Vocabulary and language skills

Vocabulary as a vital component of language learning facilitates fluency and expression of thoughts and ideas in speech and writing. Teaching words are a crucial aspect of learning a language as languages are based on words (Thornbury, 2002). Walter (2004) points out vocabulary as a central factor in teaching a language. According to Nation (1993 b) vocabulary enriches language use which in turn language use enhances vocabulary.
Vocabulary is divided into receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) vocabulary. The receptive (passive) and productive (active) vocabulary is important for the improvement of four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) as well as for effective communication.

Vocabulary and listening:

Learning vocabulary through listening is one type of learning through meaning-focused input. Learners need at least 95% coverage of the running words in the input in order to gain reasonable comprehension and to have reasonable success at guessing from context. A higher coverage of around 98% (one unknown word) in every 50 words or 2 to 3 unknown words per minute would be better (Nation, 2001: 114).

According to Nation (2001), there are several ways of supporting listening skill by providing written input that is directly related to the listening task. There are many useful ways where learners have a good reading vocabulary but little opportunity to improve the listening skills of readers. These activities are such as receptive information transfer, listening while reading, listening to stories and quizzes, etc.

There are also many other interesting activities which the teacher employs to teach new vocabulary items in order to improve the receptive knowledge of the learners.

Vocabulary and speaking:

The studies on word frequency show that very small vocabulary is required for speaking than for writing because when we want to write something, we write more than speaking about it. According to West (1960), a minimum adequate speech vocabulary of 1200 head words would be sufficient for learners of English. The frequency counts of spoken English shows that a small number of words would be enough for a large proportion of
spoken language. In order to develop learners spoken English vocabulary, the learners must be given the practice to say a lot using a very small number of words. The General Service List (West, 1953) of 2000 words will be enough in achieving this goal.

Vocabulary and reading:

As reading is the basis of all learning, it can be used effectively for learning vocabulary. The people who read more will acquire many words than those with poor reading habits. Krashen (1983) suggests that “reading is the most efficient means by which we can acquire new vocabulary.” According to (Stahl, 1990) vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely related to each other. Reading improves vocabulary knowledge, and vocabulary knowledge improves reading development. An important factor in vocabulary development for both native and non-native speakers is the control of the reading skill. The vocabulary of around 300 to 400 words will be enough in order to read simplified texts. A vocabulary of at least 3000 head-words is needed in order to read unsimplified texts with ease. According to Newbury House Writer’s Guide, there are six-word levels. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>300 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>600 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>1000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4</td>
<td>1500 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5</td>
<td>2000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 6</td>
<td>2600 words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Nations Word-Levels

Vocabulary and extensive reading:
The extensive reading is divided into two types. One aims at vocabulary growth and the other at fluency development. In order to improve vocabulary, the extensive reading texts should contain no more than 5% unknown tokens) and no more than 2 % for comprehension and guessing, and no less than 1-2%, in order to learn new vocabulary.

Vocabulary and intensive reading:

Intensive reading is the study of short texts, sometimes less than a hundred words long but usually around 300-500 words long. Intensive reading aims at understanding the text. Hence intensive reading fits within the strand of language focused learning.

Vocabulary and writing:

Vocabulary plays an important role in developing writing skills. According to Koda (1993), (a word meaning knowledge underlies “the ability to carry out conceptual manipulation” in writing a composition. A good amount of vocabulary knowledge will be useful for language learners in order to improve writing skills.

2.20 Importance of Collocations, Idioms and Phrasal verbs in vocabulary

Collocations, Idioms and phrasal verbs play an important role in developing the vocabulary. According to Benson et.al (1985), collocations are arbitrary and unpredictable” and that makes it difficult for non-native speaker to cope with them. Despite the arbitrary nature of collocations, it is recommended by many researchers that teachers should motivate their students to learn collocations.

Collocations are the words with which they co-occur. Collocations are typically characterized by arbitrary, language specific, recurrent in context and common in technical language. Collocations are of two types, weak collocations and strong collocations. Words which will make a large number of collocations are called weak collocations and words
which collocate with fewer combinations are called strong collocations. According to Cowie (1992), English collocations are important for receptive as well as productive language competence. English collocations are useful not only for English comprehension but also for English production. Collocations teach students expectations about which sorts of language can follow from what has preceded.

Cowie (1992) views, English collocations are important for receptive as well as productive language competence. English collocations are useful not only for English comprehension but also for English production. Collocations teach students expectations about which sorts of language can follow from what has preceded. Students will not have to go about constructing the language each time they want to say something but instead can use these collocations as pre-packaged building blocks’ (Carter & McCarthy, 1998, p.75).

It can be said that “collocation has emerged as an important category of lexical patterning and it is fast becoming an established unit of description in language teaching courses and materials” (Woolard, 2000, p.28).

“Collocations are found in up to 70% of everything we say, hear, read or write” (Hill, 2000). Collocation highlights the strong patterning that exists in language and shows that a word-by-word approach cannot satisfactorily account for meaning in a text. According to Nation (2001), the position in the language knowledge is collocational knowledge because the stored sequences of words are the basis of learning, knowledge and use (p.321).

Efficient language acquisition requires collocational knowledge. Ellis (2001) view that language is acquired faster and more efficiently when learned in ‘chunks’, such as set phrases or routines. In Schmitt’s belief, “lexical phrases in language reflect the way the mind tends to ‘chunk’ language in order to make it easier to process”. Collocations enable more efficient language processing, for both language reception and language production.
“Memorized clauses and clause-sequences form a high proportion of the fluent stretches of speech heard in everyday conversation. Speakers show a high degree of fluency when describing familiar experiences or activities in familiar phrases.... we believe that memorized sentences and phrases are the normal building blocks of fluent spoken discourse” (Pawley & Syder, P. 208).

Idioms share cultural and historical information and broaden people’s understanding and manipulation of a language. Idioms have grammatical and lexical stability. It implies that they are fixed in their form, hence any substitution and rearrangement in their structure can lead to a complete loss of their primary meaning. Idioms are very special in a language, they build up some distinctive features which differ from one language to another. Idioms reflect certain cultural traditions and depict the national character. They form an essential part of the general vocabulary of English. Since vocabulary and culture are intertwined, speakers can gain more vocabulary through idioms and conversely, can learn more about idioms from being exposed to target culture. The more comprehensible input there is, the more learner’s listening, speaking, reading and writing skills will improve. Idiomatic expressions pervade English with a peculiar flavour and give it astounding variety, bright character and colour. Hence, grasping the use of idioms is an essential part of learning English.

Idioms are the expressions whose meaning is more than the sum of the meaning of the individual words. The important characteristics of idioms are usually fixed in their form. One of the best ways of understanding idioms is through context. Idioms are classified into many types based on their grammar. Some of the most common types are verb + object, prepositional phrase, binomial, trinomial, frozen similes, possessive expressions and idiomatic compounds. We cannot change the words, their order, or the grammatical forms in the same way as changing non-idiomatic expression. The meaning of an idiom is metaphorical rather than literal. It is not a result of the compositional function of their parts.
The grammatical form of an idiom is invariable and fixed. The process of substitution is not allowed and passive constructions cannot be formed.

Phrasal verbs are the unitary combinations of verb and a particle which may be an adverb not a preposition. Phrasal verbs are multiword combinations of verb + adverb, verb + preposition or verb + adverb and preposition which function like one-word verb. One of the most important and challenging characteristics of phrasal verbs is that the meaning of combination is quite different from the meaning of the original verb. Another challenging thing about phrasal verbs is that they often have more than one meaning. Phrasal verbs are important because they are extremely common in informal English.

Phrasal verb is a verb that is made up of a main verb together with an adverb or preposition or both. The meanings of the phrasal verbs are not easy to understand from the meanings of individual words. Learners face many difficulties such as transparency, fixedness, frequency & usefulness, pronunciation, syntax and guessing meaning from contexts with multi-word items. Two most important and challenging characteristics of phrasal verbs are that the meaning of the combination is quite different from the meaning of the original verb and they have more than one meaning.

According to Bolinger (1971), one of the important characteristics of phrasal verbs is that they combine into units where the elements have given up their individual meanings to form a single lexical word. Phrasal verbs cover both the literal and figurative uses. Phrasal verbs are extremely common, especially in spoken English and are use more informally.

In the present day English language, which is dynamic and evolving system, particles are part of the most combinations of different types. Therefore phrasal verbs perform an essential function due to greater succinct and at the same time more expressive colouring.
Teaching phrasal verbs to EFL Students should be purposeful, as phrasal verbs are an important means of developing students’ communication skills by using idioms and getting students to be familiar with the methods of formation and expression of thoughts by native speakers. Using authentic texts consistent with the objectives of formation of students’ communicative competence is crucial. Phrasal verbs are especially useful in the quest to reach fluency in English – this type of language will not only make students sound natural but very often it will also allow them to be more efficient with the foreign language. Phrasal verbs are efficient because they ‘say’ a lot. They contain a lot of meanings.

2.21 Research done in the past on the use of films to teach English language

Madhulika Saxena in her thesis titled “The Effectiveness of Film as a Pedagogical Tool In ESL Context: An Exploratory Study,” discusses the use of films in the language classroom and songs as a pedagogical tool for improving listening skills which in turn would enhance second/foreign language learning in the classroom. In her thesis, she clearly mentioned about the use of films in language teaching, use of media in enhancing second or foreign language learning, audio/video and the importance of non-verbal elements, effect of authentic audio-visual materials on motivating EFL learners, selecting film, teaching listening comprehension to ESL/EFL learners, different approaches towards film viewing in the classroom and the problems with the medium. The study was conducted with seventeen foreign students of International Training Program (ITP) at CIEFL, Hyderabad. She collected data through classroom observation, semi-structured interviews and interviews. The results of the study revealed that most of the learners enjoyed using films and songs in the classroom and their listening comprehension skills were improved.

The thesis “Using Indian English Films to Develop Speaking Skills of Engineering Students of Andhra Pradesh” by Nandam Balaji focused on the importance of communication
skills in English and engineering education in India, importance of the use of films in English language teaching by focusing mainly on Indian English films, advantages of Indian English films, rationale for including films in English language teaching. The study included 55 students from two different engineering colleges of Andhra Pradesh. He used questionnaire and informal interviews for collecting data. He employed Whole Film Approach with two pauses in between. “Morning Raga” and “The Slum-dog Millionaire” are the two movies shown to the students. Closed-conversation or fill-ins, conversations for communication practice, correcting misunderstood accounts of conversation and actions, describing character, objects and appearance, guess-work, observation and confirmation, identifying actions & speeches, language practice, matching speech and actions, observing and imagining changes, sharing opinions, thanking, parallel conversations and scenes regarding conversations, predicting in general, role-playing and simulations were used. The study proved that the uses of films are very useful in language learning and the films, especially Indian English films, motivate the learners in improving the speaking skills of engineering students.

2.22 Conclusion

The chapter presents the theoretical underpinnings of the study. It also depicted the significance of speaking skills, elements of speaking, sub-skills of speaking, Bygate’s and Harmer’s views on speaking, methods of teaching speaking, factors affecting speaking skills, definitions of vocabulary, kinds of vocabulary, different strategies and techniques for teaching vocabulary and vocabulary in teaching and learning.